

# **Surface-bounded Atmosphere of Europa**

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## ABSTRACT

A collisional Monte Carlo model of Europa's atmosphere is described in which the sublimation and sputtering sources of H<sub>2</sub>O molecules and their molecular fragments are accounted for as well as the radiolytically produced O<sub>2</sub>. Dissociation and ionization of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> by magnetospheric electron, solar UV-photon and photo-electron impact, and collisional ejection from the atmosphere by the low-energy plasma are taken into account. Reactions with the surface are discussed, but only adsorption and atomic oxygen recombination are included in this model. The size of the surface-bounded oxygen atmosphere of Europa is primarily determined by a balance between atmospheric sources from irradiation of the satellite's icy surface by the high-energy magnetospheric charged particles and atmospheric losses from collisional ejection by the low-energy plasma, photo- and electron impact dissociation, and ionization and pick-up from the surface-bounded atmosphere. A range of sources rates for O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O are used with a larger oxygen-to-water ratio than suggested by laboratory measurements in order to account for differences in adsorption onto grains in the regolith. These calculations show that the atmospheric composition is determined by both the water and oxygen photochemistry in the near-surface region, escape of suprathermal oxygen and water into the Jovian system, and the exchange of radiolytic water products with the porous regolith. For the electron impact ionization rates used, pick-up ionization is the dominant oxygen loss process, whereas photo-dissociation and atmospheric sputtering are the dominant sources of neutral oxygen for Europa's neutral torus. Including desorption and loss of water enhances the supply of oxygen species to the neutral torus, but hydrogen produced by radiolysis is the dominant source of neutrals for Europa's torus in these models.

**Key words:** Satellites: icy surfaces: sputtering; satellites: atmosphere; satellites: Europa

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The very tenuous O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere of Europa is an example of a surface-bounded or surface boundary layer atmosphere (Johnson 2002). It is produced from irradiation of Europa's exposed outer surface by solar ultraviolet photons and magnetospheric plasma. The O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere was observed indirectly using HST (Hall *et al.* 1995, 1998), the ionosphere was observed by Galileo (Kliore *et al.* 1997), and the neutral torus at Europa's jovicentric orbit was detected by Galileo (Lagg *et al.* 2003) and Cassini (Mauk *et al.* 2003). Being able to model the HST observations allows the unique and exciting possibility of being able to determine the rate of surface chemical modification on Europa from irradiation effects. This is important as irradiation is a dominant surface alteration process on outer solar system bodies (Johnson *et al.* 2003a) including those in the Kuiper Belt and the Oort cloud (Strazzulla *et al.* 2003). Oxidant production by irradiation is a potential astrobiological resource for life within Europa's putative subsurface ocean (Chyba 2000; Cooper *et al.* 2001), while also acting to limit survival of recognizable biomolecules at the accessible surface via destructive oxidation from surface and atmospheric species. Determination of surface chemical composition, both in-situ at the surface and remotely via atmospheric sampling from Europa orbit, and the search for biochemical signs of life will be important goals of the planned Jupiter Icy Moons Orbiter (JIMO) mission. Development of coupled models for the magnetospheric environment of Europa, surface chemistry driven by irradiation effects, and the structure and composition of the atmosphere arising from such effects are needed for planning future investigations of Europa.

The plasma interaction with the surface is the principal source of O<sub>2</sub> and the plasma interaction with the atmosphere is a principal loss process, therefore a large atmosphere does not accumulate (Johnson *et al.* 1982). Ip (1996) modeled the atmosphere using the sputtering rates estimated in Shi *et al.* (1995) and a simple model for the plasma interaction. More recently, Saur *et al.* (1998) carried out a more detailed description of the plasma interaction with the ionosphere to account for the change in energy and deflection of the flowing plasma. They used this along with a range of surface sputtering sources and an oversimplified, analytic model for an escaping-atmosphere in order to determine the column density and surface source rates implied by the HST observations of excited atomic O and to determine the electron densities in the ionosphere. In these models the atmosphere was assumed to be globally uniform. Although the atmosphere is not likely to be uniform, we describe here a model 1-D atmosphere and discuss the effect of having a non-uniform atmosphere in the summary.

Earlier we presented a collisional Monte Carlo model of Europa's atmosphere (Shematovich and Johnson, 2001) accounting for adsorption, thermalization and re-emission of condensed O<sub>2</sub>. We used a 1-D Direct Simulation Monte Carlo (DSMC) method to model atmospheric thermal structure and the production rate of atomic O when the surface source is purely O<sub>2</sub> formed by radiolytic decomposition of ice. In that paper the oxygen loss was dominated by ionization from atmospheric irradiation by plasma electrons and subsequent sweeping away of the new ions by the corotating magnetic field of Jupiter's magnetosphere. However, the supply rate for oxygen to the neutral torus was dominated by photo-dissociation. That is also the case for the pure oxygen model described here, but the surface source rate given in that paper was over estimated and is corrected here. In this paper we further modify this model by including thermal and non-thermal sources of H<sub>2</sub>O molecules and the production of water molecule fragments in the atmosphere.

## 2. PHYSICAL MODEL

### 2.1. Surface Source Rates

The H<sub>2</sub>O surface source rates are chosen to explore the parameter space associated with sublimation and radiolytic sources based on measured yields and the ion flux data (Eviatar *et al.* 1985; Shi *et al.* 1995; Ip *et al.* 1998, Cooper *et al.* 2001). Estimates of the H<sub>2</sub>O sputter source rates at Europa have varied from  $\sim 2 \times 10^8$  H<sub>2</sub>O cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> to  $\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$  H<sub>2</sub>O cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> (Johnson *et al.* 2003a,b). The very large early estimates were due to large uncertainties in the sputtering yields. Since a considerable body of laboratory data has been accumulated (Johnson *et al.* 1998; 2003a,b) the present uncertainties in the estimates arise from limited knowledge of the energy spectrum of the incident plasma, particularly at the lower energies, variability in the plasma ion composition (Paranicas *et al.* 2002), and the importance of pick-up ion impact (Ip 1996). In addition, local increases of surface temperature (e.g., Johnson 1990), thin frost layers deposited on top of the crustal ice (Baragiola *et al.* 2003), and the presence of volatile species within the surface ice can all lead to enhanced sputtering rates. Conversely, the presence of hydrated species (McCord *et al.* 1999; Carlson *et al.* 1999) can reduce the effective yields relative to those for pure ice. Regolith porosity can both reduce yields for direct sputtering but perhaps also increase yields due to catalytic reactions at gas-solid interfaces of high surface area within regolith pores.

Under the assumption that the energetic particles measured by Voyager were predominantly oxygen ions, Shi *et al.* (1995) summarized the sputtering yields and plasma data and obtained globally averaged sputtering rates of  $1.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  for the energetic particles and  $1.4 \times 10^9 \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  for the low energy plasma ions. Ip (1996) and Eviatar *et al.* (1985) give comparable globally averaged source rates for the low energy plasma. In Shi *et al.* (1995) an enhancement for isotropic incidence of about a factor of 4 is included [recent modeling suggests a factor of 2.5 is more appropriate (Jurac *et al.* 2001)], and an enhancement for gyromotion of  $\sim 1.5$  (Pospieszalska and Johnson 1989). Sticking to neighboring grains in the regolith reduces these rates. Since  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  sticks with unit efficiency a reduction factor  $\sim 4$  was shown to be appropriate (Johnson 1989; 1990). Therefore, these enhancements and reductions roughly cancel in determining the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  yields.

Whereas Voyager data indicated that protons were only about 15% of the low energy plasma (Bagenal 1994), the Galileo EPD (Energetic Particle Detector) measurements showed that the energetic ion flux ( $> 10\text{keV}$ ) was dominated by protons. Therefore, the Shi *et al.* (1995) rates are likely to be high. Initial EPD data suggested  $\sim 1.7 \times 10^9 \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  (Ip *et al.* 1998; Cooper *et al.* 2001), whereas Paranicas *et al.* (2002) found  $\sim 8.0 \times 10^9 \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  using later EPD data with new corrections for cumulative radiation damage to detectors. They also indicated order of magnitude variations were possible due to variations in the ion flux and composition based on data from many Europa encounters. These estimates did not include the above-mentioned enhancement or reduction factors due to angular distributions, gyro-motion, and regolith porosity. Ip *et al.* (2000) estimated net total globally averaged sputtering rates of  $\sim 0.56\text{--}5.6 \times 10^{10} \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  with the upper limit coming from their assumption of secondary sputtering by pickup ions from the atmosphere. Therefore, source rates ranging from  $\sim (0.2 \text{ to } 20.) \times 10^{10} \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  have been suggested if the surface is water ice. However, these global averages are heavily weighted by the maximal irradiation intensities expected for magnetospheric ions incident on the trailing hemisphere, where the ice is observed to be mixed with hydrated compounds (e.g., salts, sulfuric acid) having relatively low sputtering yield compared to pure water ice, so the upper limits may be overestimates. In addition the potential corrections for surface temperature, gyro-motion effects, and diversion of magnetospheric plasma flow by ionospheric interactions need to be considered.

Based on the surface temperatures measured by Galileo (Spencer *et al.* 1999), the global average sublimation rate at a disk-averaged temperature of 106 K is small and comparable to the atmospheric contribution from micrometeoroid impact vaporization  $\sim 10^7 \text{ H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  from Cooper *et al.* (2001), if water molecules are present as ice. However, areas of the dayside equatorial regions can have temperatures up to 132 K, which gives a sublimation rate of  $10^{11} \text{ H}_2\text{O/cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ . Any localized region sublimating at this rate would be rapidly depleted of volatiles in the absence of continually operating sources, so the global average is probably more representative. Freshly-deposited frosts or ice containing volatiles, and any localized sites of cryovolcanic activity releasing volatiles to the surface from subsurface regions, could undergo rapid sublimation, but comparison of Voyager and Galileo images for Europa over a twenty-year time span (Phillips *et al.* 2000) shows no evidence for frost or ejecta deposits from such activity at the resolution of several square kilometers for the entire imaged surface. Far greater spatial and temporal coverage for this search would be offered by the planned JIMO mission. Long term monitoring of atmospheric densities from earth-based telescopes might also reveal sudden bursts of such activity and is strongly encouraged.

The relative O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O sputtering rate from ice has been shown to depend on the ice temperature and ion type and energy (e.g., Johnson 1990). The ratio used in earlier work was based on laboratory measurements at temperatures relevant to Europa's surface temperatures. This suggested a ratio of the order of ~ 0.1 to 0.2 (Johnson 1990; 1998). At the average Europa surface temperatures, Bar-Nun *et al.* (1985) found a larger ratio, ~0.5 for slow heavy ions, but Baragiola *et al.* (2003) also found ~0.2 for incident 100keV Ar<sup>+</sup> ions with larger ratios for incident O<sup>+</sup>. These ratios apply to vapor deposited laboratory samples in which the surface porosities are often not known. When the porosity is large, as in an icy planetary regolith, and the sticking probability is high, the effective sputtering yields are reduced (e.g., Johnson 2002). Since H<sub>2</sub>O sticks with unit efficiency but O<sub>2</sub> does not stick at Europa's temperatures, the effective O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O ratio is increased significantly. In addition, O<sub>2</sub> produced at considerable depths by lightly ionizing energetic protons and electrons, the dominant carriers of the plasma energy, can slowly diffuse out, so that a relatively large O<sub>2</sub> source may be possible (Cooper *et al.* 2001). Moreover, the terrestrial measurements of air-snowpack interactions in Antarctica (Dominé and Shepson 2002) show that photolytic production of oxidants can increase by orders of magnitude due to two-phase (solid-gas) interactions on grains in sunlit snowpack ice.

As the properties and composition of Europa's surface and the plasma flux become better known, and as we improve our understanding of the sputtering and radiolysis of frozen molecular solids, these uncertainties will be reduced. We first re-evaluate the source rate for a pure O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere and obtain an O<sub>2</sub> source rate, constrained by the oxygen atmosphere observations, of ~2.0×10<sup>9</sup> O<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. We use this and consider H<sub>2</sub>O source rates ranging from (0.2-2.) ×10<sup>10</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. In a few cases, large O<sub>2</sub> source rates are also considered. Although O and H are also directly sputtered from the surface (e.g., Bar-Nun *et al.* 1985; Kimmel *et al.* 1995), the yields are not well measured but are expected to be small for fast, light ions. Therefore, we do not include these in the modeling presented here.

## 2.2. Energy Distributions

There are only a few measurements of the energy spectra for sputtered water molecules (e.g., Johnson 1990; 1998). As the sputtering of frozen molecular solids is dominated by solid state chemistry, referred to as radiolysis (e.g., Johnson *et al.* 2003a,b), the energy distributions are characterized by predominantly low energies, with a high energy, non-thermal tail.

For sputtering of both H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> the energy distribution is very sensitive to the incident ion type, energy and surface temperature. For incident heavy ions, O<sub>2</sub> are ejected from the surface according to a measured energy distribution (Johnson *et al.* 1983)

$$F^{surface}(E) \sim \frac{U}{(E+U)^2}, \quad U = 0.015 \text{ eV}, \quad (1a)$$

For an O<sub>2</sub> escape energy of 0.67 eV the direct escape is very small. A distribution of the form

$$F^{surface}(E) \sim \frac{2EU}{(E+U)^3}, \quad U = 0.055 \text{ eV}, \quad (1b)$$

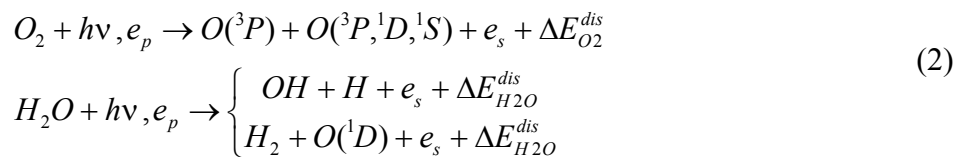
fits the measurements for heavy keV ion sputtering of H<sub>2</sub>O (e.g., Johnson 1990). This distribution gives a direct escape fraction of 0.3. However, the data clearly show that for fast light incident ions, and for higher surface temperatures, the peak shifts to lower energies (e.g., Johnson 1990). If Eq. 1a was used for H<sub>2</sub>O, the escape fraction becomes 0.05. Recent laboratory measurements for the sputtering by 200-eV electrons of Na and K deposited on ice (Johnson *et al.* 2002b) give a distribution of the form  $\sim CEU^x/(E+U)^{2+x}$  with  $x$  and  $U$  equal to 0.7 and 0.052 for Na and 0.25 and 0.02 for K, where  $C$  is the normalization constant (Johnson *et al.* 2002b). These results are consistent with the trace species being carried off by sputtering of the ice matrix. Therefore, Na, which has a similar mass, also has a similar ejecta energy distribution to that for H<sub>2</sub>O. The ejecta energy distribution for Na appears to be consistent with the morphology of the extended component of the observed sodium atmosphere (Leblanc *et al.* 2002).

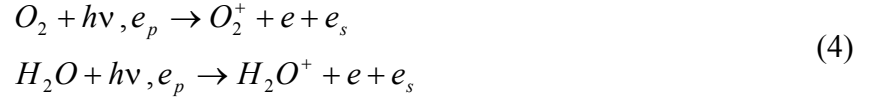
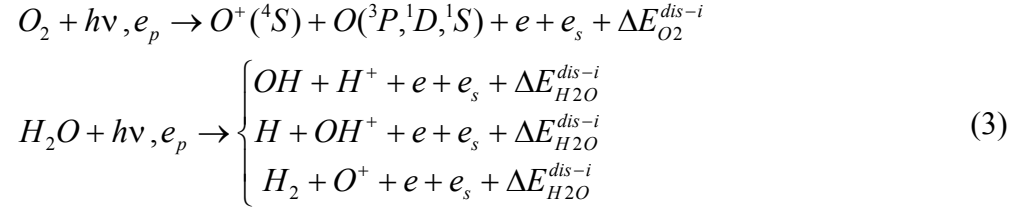
The UV-photolysis of an icy satellite surface also leads to the ejection of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> molecules. These ejecta energy distributions are closer to Maxwellian distributions at the mean surface temperature corresponding, roughly, to a ‘thermal’ surface source of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> molecules, while sublimation, subsurface out-gassing, and meteoroid impact vaporization are thermal sources of H<sub>2</sub>O. Since sputtering, radiolysis, and photolysis occur in a porous regolith, the ejecta energy distributions, such as those in Eq. 1, are partially or fully thermalized by the interaction of the ejected molecules with the volume ice.

For all of the above energy distributions, most of the sputtered molecules return to the surface. Assuming no reactions with the surface, the returning O<sub>2</sub> is immediately (on the time scale of the simulation) desorbed thermally, but we assume that returning H<sub>2</sub>O, OH, and O stick to the icy surface with nearly unit efficiency (e.g., Smith and Kay 1997). In the present model O atoms undergo recombination to produce more O<sub>2</sub> as discussed below. Using the energy distributions above, surface sputtering is a non-thermal source of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> (Johnson *et al.* 1983) and an additional thermalized source of O<sub>2</sub> resulting from atmosphere – icy surface exchange (Johnson *et al.* 1982). A mean surface temperature of 100 K is used. In radiolysis H<sub>2</sub> is, of course, also produced at about twice the rate of O<sub>2</sub> at the temperatures of interest and also accompanies the production of peroxide (e.g., Johnson *et al.* 2003b; Cooper *et al.* 2003). Since diffusion of radiolytic H<sub>2</sub> through ice and escape to space is efficient (e.g., Johnson 1990; Johnson *et al.* 2003b), H<sub>2</sub> distributions in the atmosphere are not modeled here. However, H<sub>2</sub> is clearly an important source of neutrals for the Europa torus as discussed at the end of the paper.

### 2.3. Interactions

The H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> may be dissociated or ionized by the solar UV photons and the plasma electrons through the following reactions:

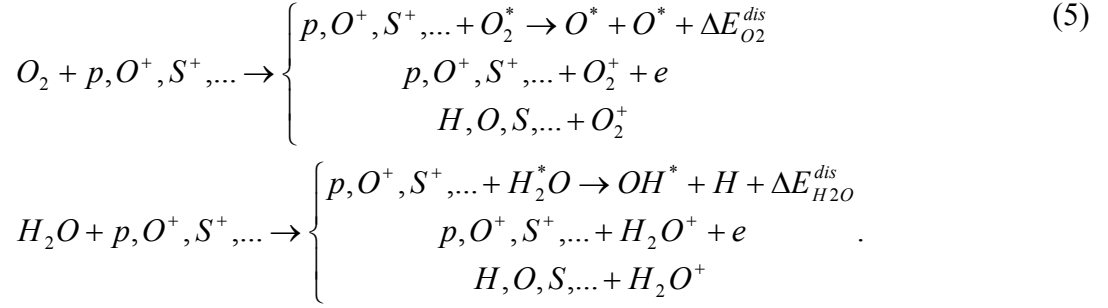




The dissociation and ionization processes lead to the formation of O atoms and OH radicals with excess kinetic energy up to a few eV, determined by the energy release in dissociation ( $\Delta E_{O_2}^{dis}$ ,  $\Delta E_{H_2O}^{dis}$ ) and dissociative ionization ( $\Delta E_{O_2}^{dis-i}$ ,  $\Delta E_{H_2O}^{dis-i}$ ) processes. Based on the Bagenal (1994) model of the magnetospheric plasma, two populations of magnetospheric electrons - thermal (with density of  $38 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and temperature of 20 eV) and hot (with density of  $2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and temperature of 250 eV) fractions, are taken into account in our model. The EUVAC solar flux model (Richards *et al.* 1994), scaled from Earth to the heliocentric orbit of Jupiter, and the standard set of photoabsorption and electron impact cross sections are used. Because the atmosphere is thin, the calculated photo-ionization and dissociation frequencies are found to be nearly constant with height (Shematovich and Johnson 2001). Although Saur *et al.* (1998) earlier showed that the electron density and temperature changed due to the interaction of the plasma with the ionosphere, they found that the net energy flux of the plasma through the atmosphere did not change greatly. Here we treat the plasma energy flux through the atmosphere to the surface as a constant and use the rates associated with the plasma upstream for comparison to the photo-processes. Any O or OH produced by dissociation is tracked and either escapes or sticks to the surface. We assume that O atoms recombine on the surface forming  $O_2$ . The ions formed are assumed to be lost immediately by pickup on planetary magnetic field lines moving at speeds  $\sim 100 \text{ km/s}$  for full corotation past Europa and  $\sim 20 \text{ km/s}$  for field lines in contact with Europa's ionosphere (Paranicas *et al.* 1998, Saur *et al.* 1998). Although some ions produced immediately upstream of Europa may reenter the atmosphere, the rest move away from Europa, gyrating north and south along the local field lines, and are swept far downstream during latitudinal bounce motion along these lines.

Finally, we use the data of Bagenal (1994) to estimate the plasma bombardment rate of the surface-bounded atmosphere. Whereas the energetic ions (measured by the Galileo EPD; e.g., Cooper *et al.* 2001) for the most part pass through this thin atmosphere without collisions, the low energy plasma does not. Therefore, it can remove (sputter) the atmosphere (Johnson 1990, 1994) through the momentum transfer, dissociation, ionization, and charge transfer processes





Momentum transfer and dissociation collisions with energetic magnetospheric ions transfer kinetic energy to H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> gas and form fresh suprathermal O atoms and OH radicals. Hydrogen atoms and molecules formed in H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation escape easily from Europa's gravity and are immediately lost to space. Energy input to other species in Europa's atmosphere causes additional atmospheric loss. Saur *et al.* (1998) used an approximate model of atmospheric sputtering and found that these energy inputs drive the dominant loss process. For a convective Maxwellian distribution of the corotating magnetospheric O<sup>+</sup> ions we used parameters close to those of Bagenal (1994) with characteristic ion energy 0.75 keV, mean ion energy 1.5 keV, and flux  $\sim 1. \times 10^8$  ions cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. In these calculations we use the collisional momentum transfer and collisional dissociation cross sections from Johnson *et al.* (2002a). A molecular dynamics code was used along with semi-empirical pair potentials to determine the transfer of energy to the motion of the center of mass in O + O<sub>2</sub> and O + H<sub>2</sub>O collisions. In addition, the internal excitation energy of each molecule was determined as well as the probability of dissociation. These were used to calculate the exit speeds of each molecule or its fragments after a collision.

### 3. NUMERICAL MODEL

The gas flow in the atmospheric near-surface boundary layer of Europa is strongly non-equilibrium due to three effects:

- nonthermal surface sources of O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O molecules;
- O atoms and OH radicals are formed with suprathermal kinetic energies in the dissociation processes;
- momentum transfer and dissociation collisions by the low-energy magnetospheric plasma ions cause heating and escape, collectively referred to as atmospheric sputtering (Johnson 1994).

Consequently the gas flow in the Europa's surface-bounded atmosphere is described by the following set of kinetic Boltzmann equations for all species

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}} f_i + g \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{v}} f_i &= Q_i^{hot} + L_i^{photo} + \sum_j \sum_m J_m(f_i, f_j) \\ \mathbf{v} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}} f_{O^+} + g \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{v}} f_{O^+} &= \sum_j \sum_m J_m(f_{O^+}, f_j) \\ i = O, O_2, H_2O, OH; \quad j &= i, O^+ \end{aligned} \right. \tag{6}$$

Here the  $f_i(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v})$  are the distribution functions for  $j = \text{O}, \text{O}_2, \text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{OH}, \text{O}^+$  by translational and internal degrees of freedom;  $\mathbf{g}$  - is the gravitational acceleration at Europa;  $Q^{hot}$  and  $L^{photo}$  are source and loss functions for O, OH, O<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O in the photolytic and electron impact processes;  $J_m$  are the collision terms for elastic, inelastic, dissociation, ionization, and charge transfer collisions (Shematovich *et al.* 1994). The O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O source terms due to surface sputtering and evaporation are taken into account through surface boundary conditions.

This system of kinetic Boltzmann equations is non-linear and the steady-state solutions are computed using the DSMC method (Bird 1994). This approach has been previously used by us to study the hot planetary and satellite coronas (Shematovich *et al.* 1994; Shematovich and Johnson 2001; Shematovich *et al.* 2003). Representative atoms and molecules ejected from the surface, or formed in the atmosphere, are tracked between collisions, and a stochastic scheme is used to choose the position, type and outcome of the next collision. At the top of the atmosphere those atoms or molecules with sufficient energy to escape are removed and the others are computationally reflected. With this numerical model we obtain the velocity distribution functions of the atomic and molecular species, and consequently, the altitude distributions for atmospheric density, temperature, and escape flux.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. Surface sources

There are clear hemispherical differences in the amount and nature of the bonding of water molecules on Europa affecting both sublimation and sputtering of water molecules and the production of oxygen from ice. A 1-D model cannot account for these spatial differences, nor can it account for the spatial variation in surface temperature or ion flux. Therefore, this is a parametric study in which the source rates are varied. Earlier we studied the cases for which O<sub>2</sub> was the dominant ejecta. Here we repeat those calculations obtaining a surface source rate of  $\sim 2 \times 10^9 \text{ O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  as discussed below. We also modeled the role of water molecules in Europa's atmosphere in a simple way. We are particularly interested here in the relative contributions of thermal versus non-thermal surface processes. In the present study we use O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O sublimation plus sputtering rates of either one or ten times the O<sub>2</sub> flux above. The models considered in this paper are listed in Table I.

#### [Table I]

In these models the following descriptions are used:

- 'a09' indicates that O<sub>2</sub> molecules are ejected non-thermally due to surface radiolysis and sputtering by high-energy magnetospheric ions. Their kinetic energies are distributed according to the spectrum of Eq. 1a, and the surface flux is equal to  $2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ;
- 'b09' indicates that H<sub>2</sub>O molecules are ejected non-thermally due to surface sputtering by high-energy magnetospheric ions. The kinetic energies of these molecules are distributed according to the spectrum of Eq. 1b, and the surface flux is equal to  $2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ;

- ‘e09’ indicates that O<sub>2</sub> and/or H<sub>2</sub>O molecules are ejected thermally due to thermal desorption, photo-desorption, and equilibration in the regolith. These ejecta have a simple Maxwellian distribution for an assumed surface temperature of 100 K, and the surface flux is equal to  $2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ;
- ‘ae09’ (‘be09’) indicates that O<sub>2</sub> (H<sub>2</sub>O) molecules are ejected both thermally (50%) and nonthermally (50%) with the surface flux equal to  $2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

Models A-C correspond to the pure oxygen surface sources, and Models D-F – to the mixed oxygen and water surface sources. Models in which the surface source flux of O<sub>2</sub> (H<sub>2</sub>O) is increased to  $2 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  with no changes in other parameters for each case were considered as sensitivity studies, but could represent cases for which the local surface is very volatile due to the ice structure or composition. Such large sources of O<sub>2</sub> would require diffusion from depth in the regolith. In addition, the O<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere is somewhat insensitive to the difference between thermal and non-thermal distributions because of the repeated interactions of O<sub>2</sub> with the surface. Models D-F are likely closer to the globally averaged atmosphere. One can roughly scale these results for other surface source rates because the coupling between the H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> products is weak. However, it is clear from the results given here that a 3-D atmospheric model, accounting for differences in source regions, is needed to correctly describe Europa’s atmosphere.

In all models the atmospheric sputtering by low-energy plasma, solar UV and the magnetospheric electron impact dissociation and ionization, were taken into account with the calculated ionization and dissociation frequencies given in the Table II.

[Table II]

#### 4.2. Pure O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere

We first repeated the calculations of the models that were discussed in our previous paper (Shematovich and Johnson, 2001) in order to correct the estimate of surface source rate and clarify the effect of photo-dissociation. The characteristics of atmospheric gas flow in the near-surface region of Europa’s atmosphere are given in Figs. 1 and 2 for models with a pure O<sub>2</sub> surface source – Model A (without photo-dissociation), Model B (with photo-dissociation), and Model C (with surface source 10 times higher). In Table IIIa are also given the column densities and total escape fluxes for all pure oxygen models.

[figure 1, figure 2]

In Fig. 1 the height profiles of number (top panel) and column (middle panel) densities, and total escape fluxes (bottom panel) of molecular (solid lines) and atomic (dashed lines) oxygen are given for Models A, B, and C. These densities vs. altitude are not well described by the density vs. altitude profile for a simple out-flowing atmosphere assumed in Saur *et al.* (1998). In the middle panel the range of O<sub>2</sub> column densities in Europa’s atmosphere inferred from HST observations (Hall *et al.*, 1998) is shown by the vertical (dot-dot-dot-dashed) lines. Model column densities were calculated from the top of the neutral atmosphere (here ~700 km). Figure 2 illustrates the detailed flux balance in the neutral surface-bounded atmosphere for Model B. In the top panel the calculated local fluxes of upward and downward moving O<sub>2</sub> molecules (solid and dotted lines) and the direct escape flux (dashed line) are plotted for the main atmospheric constituent – molecular oxygen. Ionization and sweeping is the dominant loss process and “ionization flux” (dot-dashed line) is given for comparison. The latter is calculated as the neutral species column density multiplied by the corresponding ionization rate from by magnetospheric electrons and solar UV radiation (see

Table I). In the middle panel the same fluxes are given for the O<sub>2</sub> dissociation product – atomic oxygen. In the bottom panel the balance of the total flux of oxygen given as O<sub>2</sub> flux is shown. Vertical lines in all panels shows the surface source influx of O<sub>2</sub> molecules.

**[Table IIIa]**

It is seen that the O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere of Europa is formed and supported due to both thermal and nonthermal processes. In the near-surface region ( $\leq 10$  km) both nonthermal surface sputtering and thermal desorption play a role in the formation of the density distribution. O<sub>2</sub> molecules ejected into this region with kinetic energies higher than the energy of gravitational binding, can easily escape, therefore the thermally re-desorbed O<sub>2</sub> molecules become the dominant fraction of the near-surface region ( $\leq 100$  km). The momentum transfer collisions with the magnetospheric ions and the suprathermal atomic oxygen formed in the dissociation processes lead to the heating of the molecular oxygen in the most upper atmospheric layers ( $\geq 100$  km) and to the additional loss from the atmosphere. Each of these atmospheric regions can have different height scales. Atomic oxygen is formed in the photo-dissociation process with the mean excess kinetic energy of 0.7 – 1.0 eV. Therefore, these atoms easily escape from the rarefied Europa's atmosphere. The electron impact dissociation of O<sub>2</sub> molecules is accompanied by the formation of O atoms with kinetic energies only slightly exceeding the temperature of the ambient atmospheric gas and do not lead to significant heating or escape. The O atoms formed by dissociation return to the icy satellite surface where they either react or recombine to O<sub>2</sub>. In the models examined here the adsorbed O atoms react with the surface and are presumed to eventually 'recombine' and desorb as O<sub>2</sub>.

The height profiles of O<sub>2</sub> column densities in Europa's atmosphere (calculated, as mentioned above, from the top of atmosphere) indicate that the HST estimated column of about  $1 \times 10^{15}$  O<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup> is accumulated in the near-surface region mainly due to the recycling of thermalized molecular oxygen in the atmosphere-icy surface chemical (surface recombination of atomic oxygen) and physical (O<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption) exchange. The recycled fraction is accumulated slowly because the mass flow in the near-surface region is controlled by the processes having very different time scales: fast surface-sputtering O<sub>2</sub> influx with the energy spectrum of Eq.1a, slow O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere-icy surface recycling determined by the surface temperature, and direct escape of O<sub>2</sub> molecules with high kinetic energies. The O<sub>2</sub> surface source influx is balanced by the ionization and dissociation losses due to the magnetospheric electrons and solar UV radiation through the whole surface-bounded atmosphere with the minor input of nonthermal escape due to the atmospheric sputtering.

It is seen that O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere of Europa is a surface-bounded (recycling) atmosphere and that a nonthermal surface-sputtering source rate of  $2 \times 10^9$  cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> is sufficient to support the tenuous gas oxygen envelope of Europa first observed by Hall et al. (1995). In our previous paper (Shematovich and Johnson 2001) similar atmospheric characteristics and dependence on altitude were found. The primary atmospheric loss mechanism was shown to be electron impact ionization and pick-up and not atmospheric sputtering as suggested by Saur *et al.* (1998). In addition, including the photo-dissociation was shown to be critical for obtaining the neutral loss rates. Whereas atmospheric pick-up ions are a direct supply of the Europa plasma torus (Schreier *et al.* 1993), the smaller neutral ejection rate creates a neutral oxygen torus which provides a distributed source of oxygen ions for the jovian magnetosphere at Europa's orbit.

In the subsequent discussion, oxygen ‘loss’ rate will mean all atmospheric loss processes, including ionization and pick-up. Neutral escape will be used in describing the supply of the neutral torus. There still remains a caveat, as the pick-up of  $O_2^+$  followed by recombination or dissociation is a distributed source of energetic neutral O.

The fact that, for a pure  $O_2$  atmosphere, photo-dissociation is the dominant source of ejected O is initially surprising as electron impact is the dominant dissociation mechanism and was the means by which the  $O_2$  atmosphere was observed (Hall *et al.* 1995). Photo-dissociation is a more important neutral loss process than electron impact dissociation because more energy is released to the fragment O than is the case for electron impact dissociation (Rees 1988; Shematovich *et al.* 1994; 1999). The above results were all confirmed here, as indicated in Table IIIa. However, there was an error in our earlier paper. Although the neutral escape rates reached steady state, in the lowest boxes equilibrium was apparently not achieved as it occurs much more slowly as discussed above. Since this directly affects the exchange with the surface, our previous estimate of the surface source rate required to account of the observations is incorrect. Here we find that the necessary amount using a pure  $O_2$  atmosphere is  $\sim 2.0 (\pm 1.0) \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ . Fortunately, this is roughly the same size as that used by Saur *et al.* (1998) although their dominant loss process, atmospheric sputtering, is incorrect and better estimates are now available for the surface source rate.

#### 4.3. Concentrations and temperatures in the near-surface $O_2$ plus $H_2O$ atmosphere

The characteristics of atmospheric gas flow in the near-surface region of Europa's atmosphere are given in Figs. 3 and 4 versus altitude and in Table IIIb for different  $H_2O$  surface sources – non-thermal (Model D), thermal (Model E), and mixed (Model F). The number densities of  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , OH and O and their total escape fluxes are given in Fig. 3 (left and right panels, accordingly) and column densities are presented in Table II; the mean kinetic energies and mean flow velocities of  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , OH and O are given in Fig. 4 (right and left panels, accordingly).

##### [figure 3, figure 4]

In all cases presented here, as well as in the pure  $O_2$  model studied earlier, the atmosphere is found to be a very tenuous and surface-bounded gaseous envelope with  $O_2$  molecules being the main constituent. This is supplemented by an admixture of  $H_2O$ , OH and O and a small component of  $H_2$  and H not considered here. This is the case even for models F and G in which the  $H_2O$  source rate is ten times the  $O_2$  source rate. Such a composition was predicted for Europa (Johnson *et al.* 1982) as a consequence of gain and loss processes for the three parent molecules ejected from the surface:  $H_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , and  $O_2$ . The light  $H_2$  molecules are lost to the European neutral torus because of the relatively weak gravitational field of Europa. On the other hand, the heavier  $H_2O$  and  $O_2$  molecules are lost mainly through the non-thermal mechanisms: dissociation and ionization, atmospheric sputtering by the low-energy magnetospheric plasma and non-thermal surface ejection. Returning molecules have species-dependent behavior on contact with Europa's surface. The  $O_2$  molecules stick with very low efficiency and are immediately (on the time scale of the simulation) desorbed thermally, but returning  $H_2O$ , OH, and O stick to the grains in the icy regolith with unit efficiency (Smith and Kay 1997).

Atomic oxygen O and hydroxyl OH are formed with suprathermal energies in the dissociation processes of the ejected parent  $H_2O$  and  $O_2$  molecules by solar UV radiation. Because the near-surface atmosphere is very rarefied, these suprathermal particles do not efficiently thermalize in collisions with the parent molecules (see their mean kinetic energies in Fig. 4). Thus the

suprathermal products efficiently escape from the atmosphere, as seen by escape fluxes in Fig. 3, or they stick to the icy satellite surface, as seen by the height profiles of mean flow velocities in Fig. 4, which are directed to the surface. Therefore, the concentrations and column densities of O and OH in the surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa are low (Fig. 3) as indicated by the column densities in Table IIIa, and b.

Analysis of the H<sub>2</sub>O flow characteristics in our model shows that the H<sub>2</sub>O escape flux is due mainly to the high-energy tail of the surface-sputtering source. Molecules ejected with the suprathermal energies very efficiently transfer kinetic energy to the more abundant, near-surface oxygen molecules. The H<sub>2</sub>O density distribution in the near-surface region ( $\leq 50$  km) is also strongly affected by the sticking to the icy surface. At higher altitudes the direct escape significantly reduces the H<sub>2</sub>O abundance.

#### [Table IIIb]

The concentration of O<sub>2</sub> in Europa's atmosphere within the near-surface region ( $\leq 50$  km) is determined by all three surface sources: surface-sputtering, surface-evaporation, and recycling of surface-thermalized O<sub>2</sub> molecules. As the main atmospheric constituents, the O<sub>2</sub> molecules are efficiently heated by momentum transfer collisions with the incident plasma, the H<sub>2</sub>O molecules ejected from the surface with suprathermal energies, and suprathermal dissociation products. More energetic O<sub>2</sub> is found for all models at higher altitudes (Fig. 4, right panels). However, the density profiles of O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3) are similar for all models, so the increased production of energetic O<sub>2</sub> from sputtering is balanced by higher escape rates. In all of these models the rate for the dominant loss process, pick-up ion production, is assumed to be independent of altitude, and details of the thermal distributions for neutrals from different models have little effect on the O<sub>2</sub> density profiles. We also note, as seen in Table IV for model D, that although atmospheric sputtering is a smaller loss process than ionization and pick-up in our models, it can be comparable to or larger than photo-dissociation-induced loss.

#### 4.4. Balance and the energy spectra of upward fluxes

The macroscopic characteristics of composition, dynamics, and energy balance of gas flow in the surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa are presented in Figs. 3 and 4. These were derived from the calculated energy distribution functions (EDFs) for all neutral atmospheric constituents. The EDFs characterize the gas flow on the microscopic level.

In the runs for all models from Table I the statistics on the molecule velocities were stored allowing us to estimate the energy distributions of all species. To analyze the particle distributions in Europa's surface-bounded atmosphere the energy spectra of fluxes of upward moving parent H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> molecules were calculated and are shown in Figs. 5a and 5b for Model D. For comparison the energy spectra of surface-sputtering source functions (Eq. 1a) for O<sub>2</sub> and (Eq. 1b) for H<sub>2</sub>O are also shown. The heights of 3.6 km and 100 km were taken as the representative of the near-surface environment and of the upper atmospheric layers where atmospheric sputtering becomes important.

#### [figure 5a]

In Model D the sources of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> are both nonthermal (Eqs. 1a and 1b). It is seen that in the very near-surface region the upward flux of O<sub>2</sub> molecules is characterized by the Maxwellian core, corresponding to the recycled population of molecules with kinetic energies close to the surface temperature, and by a suprathermal tail formed due to both surface-sputtering and momentum transfer collisions with dissociation products. For H<sub>2</sub>O, the energy spectrum of upward moving flux

is determined by the surface-sputtering source spectrum and the Maxwellian core does not form because molecules efficiently stick to the icy satellite surface. We suggest the interesting possibility of spatially resolving the composition of source sites for sputtered molecules with an orbital instrument on JIMO since low-energy neutral spectra of H<sub>2</sub>O-like molecules suffer little modification after leaving the surface.

**[figure 5b]**

The net fluxes of parent molecules H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub>, and of the dissociation products O and OH, can be used for the analysis of mass balance in Europa's surface-bounded atmosphere. In Fig. 6 the height profiles of upward and downward fluxes of O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, O and OH are shown together with the loss fluxes of escaping molecules and "ionization loss fluxes". The latter are calculated as the column density multiplied by the ionization rate (see, Table II) and can be interpreted as the loss flux due to the ion pickup in the atmosphere. From Fig. 6 it is seen that, as in all of the models described here, mass balance for molecular oxygen is determined primarily by the ionization by magnetospheric electrons in the near-surface region and by the atmospheric sputtering in the upper atmospheric layers.

**[figure 6]**

As was mentioned above, most of the ejected molecules return to the surface. Collisions between parent molecules and their dissociation products in the very near-surface region lead to the formation of suprathermal tails in the downward fluxes of parent O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O molecules and of O and OH. The energy spectra of these downward fluxes significantly differ from a convective Maxwellian, especially for dissociation products - O and OH. For example, in case of Model D the impacting O<sub>2</sub>, O, H<sub>2</sub>O, and OH molecules are characterized by the mean kinetic energies equal to 0.02 eV, 0.66 eV, 0.19 eV, and 0.23 eV, correspondingly. These values are much higher than the mean surface temperature of 100 K (0.0086 eV). Such suprathermal neutrals interacting with the icy surface can potentially initiate chemical change on grain surfaces in the regolith (Johnson 2001; Johnson *et al.* 2003a,b).

#### 4.5. Atmospheric Escape and the Europa's Neutral Torus

As was the case for the observed sodium atmosphere/torus at Europa (Leblanc *et al.* 2002), the loss of atmosphere supplies a neutral and plasma torus (Schreier *et al.* 1993). Since ionization is the dominant oxygen loss process in our model, this implies the oxygen ions are primarily supplied by pick-up from Europa's atmosphere and ionization in the oxygen neutral torus is a smaller supply. Since the neutral molecular hydrogen supply rate is roughly twice the surface source rate for molecular oxygen, hydrogen is likely the dominant source for the Europa neutral torus and ionization of hydrogen in the torus is likely the principal supply of hydrogen ions.

Because oxygen loss in these models is dominated by ionization and pick-up, the calculated neutral oxygen supply rate is much lower than the surface source rate given in Table III a, b, and c for all models. These values were calculated as  $Q_n = S_{exo} F_{esc}$ , where  $S_{exo} = C(R_{Eur} + h_{exo})^2$ . If we assume the loss is global, so that  $C \approx 4\pi$ , then  $S_{exo} \approx 3.5 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^2$  for an exobase height  $h_{exo} = 100 \text{ km}$ . The flux of escaping oxygen atoms was taken as equal to  $F_{esc} = 2F_{O_2} + F_O + F_{H_2O} + F_{OH}$  with data taken from Fig. 3 (right panels) and Table III. We obtained the supply rates in the range of  $(1.0-3.0) \times 10^{26}$  O atoms per second for Models D-G for a globally uniform atmosphere. For an O<sub>2</sub> source rate of  $\sim 2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^2$ , the H<sub>2</sub> source would be  $\sim 4 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^2$ . If the H<sub>2</sub> escape fraction is near unity (e.g., Johnson 1990) this would result in a supply  $\sim 3 \times 10^{27}$  H atoms per sec to the neutral torus primarily as H<sub>2</sub>. To understand the relative importance of the various processes in Table IV we give the

atmospheric loss rates for all of the interactions for the pure O<sub>2</sub> surface source rate (Model B) and a model with the mixed H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> nonthermal surface source rates (Model D). For comparison, the loss and gain rates of the model by Saur *et al.* (1998) are also given.

#### [Table IV]

The total loss rate and energy spectra of escaping neutrals from Europa's atmosphere characterize the supply of oxygen and water product neutrals for the inner Jovian magnetosphere. Combining these with the hydrogen loss gives the source terms for the Europa neutral torus recently observed using the Galileo energetic particle data (Lagg *et al.* 2003) and using the Cassini energetic neutral atom data (Mauk *et al.* 2003). The energy spectra of the escaping H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> are indicated in Figs. 5a and 5b as the contributions to the right of vertical lines on the energy spectra of upward fluxes. A rough estimate of the total number  $N$  of neutrals in the trans-Europa gas torus can be made using the balance equation  $Q_n = N * L_i$ , or  $N = S_{exo} (2F_{O_2}/L_{O_2} + F_O/L_O + F_{H_2O}/L_{H_2O} + F_{OH}/L_{OH})$ , where  $Q_n$  is the total supply rate (Table III) and  $L_i$  are the species loss rates due to the ionization by solar UV radiation and by magnetospheric electrons (Table II). Using these supply and loss rates our estimate of the total number  $N$  of oxygen neutrals is  $\sim(3.0 - 5.0) \times 10^{32}$  O atoms as O, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, or OH for Models D-F (Table IIIa, and b last row). In each case there is a source of neutral hydrogen at least twice the oxygen surface source rate times the escape fraction as discussed above. The density again would be obtained from the hydrogen ionization rate.

Mauk *et al.* (2003) estimated the total number of neutrals in the Europa gas torus to be in the range of  $(4.5 - 9.0) \times 10^{33}$  atoms. Preliminary analysis of the Cassini UVIS observations (Hansen *et al.* 2003) suggests lower torus content. Because most of the oxygen is lost by pick-up in these models, the supply of neutral hydrogen is larger and, therefore, H is likely the dominant species in the Europa neutral torus. However, the atmosphere is not likely to be globally uniform as mentioned earlier due to variations in the surface composition and to variations in the charged particle flux to the surface. Since most of the ejecta are molecular, the excess energy on dissociation needs to be accounted for and the interactions occurring in the torus must be treated in correctly modeling the neutral torus.

## 5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a collisional Monte Carlo model of Europa's atmosphere in which the sublimation and sputtering sources of H<sub>2</sub>O molecules and their molecular fragments are accounted for as well as the adsorption, thermalization and re-emission of condensed O<sub>2</sub>, a stable decomposition product of H<sub>2</sub>O radiolysis. The very tenuous oxygen atmosphere of Europa originates from a balance between sources from irradiation of the icy satellite surface by solar UV photons and magnetospheric plasma and losses from pick-up ionization and ejection following dissociation or collisions with the low energy plasma ions. Since the incident plasma is primarily responsible for both the supply and loss of oxygen, a dense atmosphere does not accumulate (Johnson *et al.* 1982). The thin, surface bounded atmosphere calculated is also consistent with a recent model for the extended sodium atmosphere at Europa (Leblanc *et al.* 2002; Johnson *et al.* 2002b).

The surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa is characterized by a hot corona formed due to atmospheric sputtering, by suprathermal radicals entering the regolith that can drive radiolytic chemistry, by a supply of pick-up ions to the plasma torus, and by a supply of neutrals to the Jovian inner magnetosphere producing a neutral gas torus along the Europa's orbit. The calculations



described here show that the chemical composition and structure of the atmosphere is determined by both the water and oxygen photochemistry in the near-surface region and the adsorption-desorption exchange by radiolytic water products with the satellite surface. In these models the principal loss of oxygen is by pick-up ionization and not atmospheric sputtering, as suggested by Saur *et al.* (1998). Their large atmospheric sputtering rate came from using an effective interaction cross section that was much too large. However, to confirm this result an accurate, self-consistent model of the electron temperature and density in Europa's atmosphere is needed. In such a model the observations of Hall *et al.* (1995; 1998) constrain the product of the column density and the electron impact ionization rate (Saur *et al.* 1998). Whereas deflection and cooling of the plasma might increase for the largest surface source rates discussed, dramatic differences are not expected for the standard source O<sub>2</sub> rate which is consistent with that used in Saur *et al.* (1998). We further note that, although electron impact is the dominant atmospheric dissociation process, by comparing models A and B it is seen that photo-dissociation is an important loss process and an important supply of oxygen to the neutral torus in addition to atmospheric sputtering. Depending on the characteristics of the H<sub>2</sub>O surface source, direct escape of sputtered water molecules also supplies oxygen-containing species.

The surface flux of oxygen that we found earlier (Shematovich and Johnson 2001), to account for the production of the oxygen emissions observed by HST (Hall *et al.*, 1998), was corrected here. Here we also used the fact that the O<sub>2</sub>/ H<sub>2</sub>O sputtering yield ratio is larger than that measured for laboratory samples because radiolysis is occurring in a very porous regolith (Johnson *et al.*, 2003a,b). Because ionization is a dominant loss mechanism in this model, the surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa is an important source of heavy pick-up ions that directly supply plasma to the inner magnetosphere of Jupiter. The ejected neutrals that populate the neutral torus are subsequently ionized and are a smaller, distributed source of oxygen containing ions for the Europa plasma torus. Because the dominant loss of oxygen in these models is by ionization and pick-up, which must be balanced by a comparable loss of H<sub>2</sub>, we find that the dominant supply of neutrals to the torus is radiolytic production and direct escape of molecular hydrogen. Therefore, if the ionization rates used here are correct, the neutral torus will be dominated by hydrogen and the proton source for the Europa plasma will be a distributed source.

If the atmosphere is indeed globally uniform, then the pick-up ionization rate found here is likely to be too large. In fact, HST observations by McGrath *et al.* (2001) suggest the atmosphere might be non-uniform. Noting that the ice coverage of the surface is indeed non-uniform, a preliminary 2-D model was run for a pure oxygen atmosphere (Wong *et al.* 2001). In this model the source of oxygen was the icy leading hemisphere. In steady state, the differences between the leading and trailing oxygen column density was found to be only about a factor of two because oxygen returns to the surface and desorbs many times before being ionized. Hence, oxygen spreads across the surface of Europa. However, molecular oxygen can react in the regolith, a process ignored here. Even if the possible reactions are inefficient, the surface area in the regolith is many orders of magnitude larger than Europa's geometric surface so that such reactions for oxygen in the porous regolith may in fact be likely. If this is the case a non-uniform oxygen atmosphere can result. Therefore, our model will be expanded to a 3-D model. A goal will be to include the effect of the surface catalytic chemistry and the release of trace amounts of SO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> that are trapped in the surface ice (Johnson *et al.* 2003a,b).

There is a need for reference models of the European atmosphere to aid in planning of future missions to Europa such as the Jupiter Icy Moons Orbiter (JIMO), which could conduct orbital measurements of this moon for several months. Johnson *et al.* (1998) noted that Europa surface composition, among the prime science objectives for JIMO, could be inferred in part from orbital measurements of sputtering products comprising the atmosphere. At an orbital altitude of 100 km the data in Figure 3 give densities of  $10^6$  to  $10^7$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for O<sub>2</sub>, and  $10^3$  to  $10^5$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for H<sub>2</sub>O, O and OH. Moving to a lower orbit  $\sim 10$  km would increase the O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O densities by an order of magnitude but would negligibly change the O and OH densities. Current techniques for bulk measurements of neutral gas, e.g. as to be utilized by the Cassini Orbiter Ion-Neutral Mass Spectrometer at Titan and other Saturnian moons, have a density threshold  $\sim 10^4$  cm<sup>-3</sup>, so different techniques may be needed to measure OH and other trace species (Na, Mg, K) originating from Europa's surface. Direct imaging of single, H<sub>2</sub>O-like low-energy ( $\sim 10$  eV) neutrals sputtered from the Europa surface is a possibility and could provide geologic context for surface composition studies. Although we have not attempted to quantify pick-up ion densities and fluxes in the present model, ion composition measurements are far more sensitive, so that even trace species could be measured in the pickup ion populations downstream from Europa and other Galilean moons. The neutral gas torus that extends around Jupiter at Europa's orbit, as discussed above, provides an extended region for JIMO detection of neutrals and ions originating from Europa.

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**Table I.**  
**Calculated models**

<b>Model<sup>a,b</sup></b>	<b>O<sub>2</sub> surface source rate, [cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>] and energy spectrum</b>	<b>H<sub>2</sub>O surface source rate, [cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>] and energy spectrum</b>
<b>A(a09-phd)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a) without photodissociation	- no
<b>B(a09+phd)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a) with photodissociation	- no
<b>C(a10+phd)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>10</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a) with photodissociation	- no
<b>D(a09b09)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a)	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1b)
<b>E(a09e10)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a)	2.0×10 <sup>10</sup> evaporation with T <sub>surf</sub> =100K
<b>F(a09be10)</b>	2.0×10 <sup>9</sup> sputtering Eq. (1a)	2.0×10 <sup>10</sup> 50% sputtering Eq. (1b) ; 50% evaporation with T <sub>surf</sub> =100 K

<sup>a</sup> -impact processes by the solar UV radiation with mean level of solar activity and by the magnetospheric plasma with two populations of magnetospheric electrons - thermal (with density of 38 cm<sup>-3</sup> and temperature of 20 eV) and hot (with density of 2 cm<sup>-3</sup> and temperature of 250 eV) fractions, were taken into account;

<sup>b</sup> - a convective Maxwellian distribution of the corotating magnetospheric O<sup>+</sup> ions with characteristic ion energy 0.75 keV, mean ion energy 1.5 keV, and flux  $\sim 1 \times 10^8$  ions cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was used as a low-energy magnetospheric ion influx into the atmosphere.

**Table II.**  
**Dissociation and ionization frequencies for solar UV radiation and**  
**magnetospheric electron impact for Europa atmosphere**

<b>Process rate, [s<sup>-1</sup>]</b>	<b>O<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>O</b>	<b>H<sub>2</sub>O</b>	<b>Source</b>
Photoionization	2.8(-8) 1.9(-8) ----	1.7(-8) 7.8(-9) ----	2.2(-8) 1.5(-8) -----	Models A-H Schreier <i>et al.</i> (1993) Saur <i>et al.</i> (1998)
Electron impact ionization	1.8(-6) 2.4(-7) 1.9(-6)	1.8(-7) 1.2(-7) ----	2.7(-6) 1.3(-7) -----	Models A-H Schreier <i>et al.</i> (1993) Saur <i>et al.</i> (1998)
Photodissociation	1.8(-7) 2.4(-9) ----		1.1(-7) 4.5(-7) ----	Models A-H Schreier <i>et al.</i> (1993) Saur <i>et al.</i> (1998)
Electron impact dissociation	3.4(-7) 2.3(-7) 3.8(-7)		4.1(-6) 4.5(-7) -----	Models A-H Schreier <i>et al.</i> (1993) Saur <i>et al.</i> (1998)

<sup>a</sup> – a(b)=a\*10<sup>b</sup>



**Table IIIa**  
**Characteristics of Gas Flow in the Surface-bounded Atmosphere of Europa**

<b>Models</b>	<b>A(a09-phd)</b>	<b>B(a09+phd)</b>	<b>C(a10+phd)</b>
O <sub>2</sub> column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	8.2(14) <sup>a</sup>	1.2(15)	1.3(16)
O column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	2.3(6)	2.4(13)	2.6(14)
O <sub>2</sub> escape flux (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	4.1(6) 3.2	4.0(6) 11.4	4.4(7) 2.9
O escape flux, (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	1.6 (4) 8.1	3.1(8) 0.4	2.5(9) 0.4
Total O atom supply rate, $Q_n$ (s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>c</sup>	2.9(24)	1.1(26)	9.2(26)
Total number $N$ of oxygen neutrals in the torus	1.6(30)	6.1(32)	5.0(33)

<sup>a</sup> – a(b)=a\*10<sup>b</sup>;

<sup>b</sup> – mean kinetic energy (MKE) of escaping particles was calculated as ratio of total energy flux to total particle flux of escaping particles minus the escape energy (0.68, and 0.34 eV for O<sub>2</sub>, and O, respectively);

<sup>c</sup> – total oxygen atom supply rate to neutral torus assuming global loss through the surface area  $S_{exc} \approx 3.5 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^2$  – see subsection 4.5.

**Table IIIb.**  
**Characteristics of Gas Flow in the Surface-bounded Atmosphere of Europa**

<b>Models</b>	<b>D(a09b09)</b>	<b>E(a09e10)</b>	<b>F(a09be10)</b>
O <sub>2</sub> column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	7.8(14) <sup>a</sup>	9.3(14)	8.0(14)
H <sub>2</sub> O column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	9.2(11)	9.4(11)	4.5(12)
O column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	4.2(12)	2.4(12)	3.9(12)
OH column density, (cm <sup>-2</sup> )	3.0(10)	4.6(09)	5.5(10)
O <sub>2</sub> escape flux, (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ), and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	2.5(8) 17.0	2.1(8) 3.3	2.1(8) 16.0
H <sub>2</sub> O escape flux, (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ), and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	4.3(7) 1.8	7.2(5) 0.3	8.9(7) 1.7
O escape flux, (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ), and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	2.4(8) 0.4	2.6(8) 0.4	2.2(8) 0.4
OH escape flux, (cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ), and MKE <sup>b</sup> , (eV)	2.4(4) 0.3	3.2(3) 0.5	3.9(4) 0.4
Total O atom supply rate, $Q_n$ , (s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>c</sup>	2.6(26)	2.3(26)	2.4(26)
Total number $N$ of oxygen neutrals in the torus	5.3(32)	5.6(32)	4.9(32)

<sup>a</sup> – a(b)=a\*10<sup>b</sup>;

<sup>b</sup> – mean kinetic energy (MKE) of escaping particles was calculated as ratio of total energy flux to total particle flux of escaping particles minus the escape energy (0.68, and 0.34 eV for O<sub>2</sub>, and O, respectively);

<sup>c</sup> – total oxygen atom supply rate to neutral torus assuming global loss through the surface area  $S_{exc} \approx 3.5 \times 10^{17}$  cm<sup>2</sup> – see subsection 4.5.

**Table IV.**  
**Total loss rates in Europa's atmosphere**

<b>Loss process rate, [O<sub>2</sub> mol. s<sup>-1</sup>]</b>	<b>Model B(a09)</b>	<b>Model D(a09b09)</b>	<b>Saur et al. (1998)</b>
Atmospheric sputtering	4.0(6)*3.5(17)=1.4(24)	2.5(8)*3.5(17)=8.8(25)	7.3(26)
Photo-dissociation	3.2(8)*3.5(17)/2=5.6(25)	2.4(8)*3.5(17)/2=4.2(25)	-----
Ionization	5.4(26)	4.7(26)	1.2(26)
<b>Total gain</b>	1.9(9)*3.1(17)=6.0(26)	1.9(9)*3.1(17)=6.0(26)	8.5(26)
<b>O atom supply rate, [O atoms s<sup>-1</sup>]</b>	1.2(26)	2.6(26)	1.5(27)

<sup>a</sup> – a(b)=a\*10<sup>b</sup>.

## FIGURE CAPTURES

Figure 1. Height profiles of number density (top panel), column density (middle panel) and total escape flux (bottom panel) of O<sub>2</sub> (solid lines), and O (dashed lines) in the pure O<sub>2</sub> surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa for Models A (thin lines), B (midlines), and C (thick lines). Column densities in the middle panel were calculated from the upper boundary of atmosphere; vertical lines (triple dot-dashed line) in this panel indicate the constraints on the O<sub>2</sub> column density inferred from HST observations (Hall *et al.*, 1998).

Figure 2. Flux balance in the pure O<sub>2</sub> surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa for Model B. In the top panel the O<sub>2</sub> local upward (solid line) and downward (dotted line) fluxes, total escape flux (dashed line) and the local “ionization flux” by magnetospheric electrons (dash-dotted line) are given. In the middle panel the same fluxes for atomic oxygen are shown. In the bottom panel the upward flux (solid line), and total loss flux (dashed line) of O<sub>2</sub> molecules are presented. In all panels the vertical line (triple dot-dashed line) corresponds to the surface O<sub>2</sub> source with the flux equal to  $2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The local “ionization flux” is equal to the local O<sub>2</sub> column density multiplied by the ionization frequency. Total loss flux is a sum of O<sub>2</sub> and O escape fluxes and of local “ionization flux”.

Figure 3. Height profiles of number densities (left panels) and total escape fluxes (right panels) of O<sub>2</sub> (solid line), H<sub>2</sub>O (dot-dashed line), OH (dot-dot-dot-dashed line) and O (dashed line) in the surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa for Models D (top panels), E (middle panels), and F (bottom panels). Dotted line in right hand panels is the O<sub>2</sub> source rate.

Figure 4. Height profiles of mean velocity (left panels) and mean kinetic energy (right panels) of O<sub>2</sub> (solid line), H<sub>2</sub>O (dot-dashed line), OH (dot-dot-dot-dashed line) and O (dashed line) in the surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa for Models D (top panels), E (middle panels), and F (bottom panels).

Figure 5a. Energy spectra (solid lines) of upward fluxes of O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O in the near-surface region at height of 3.6 km for Model D. Energy spectra (1a) and (1b) of surface sources are shown by dashed lines. Vertical dot-dot-dot-dashed lines at 0.38 eV and 0.67 eV show the escape energy of H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> molecules.

Figure 5b. Same as Figure 6a, but at height of 100 km.

Figure 6. Flux balance in the mixed O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa for Model D. Left panels show the fluxes of O<sub>2</sub> and O, and right panels - fluxes of H<sub>2</sub>O, and OH. Line styles for both left and right panels are the same as ones in Figure 2.

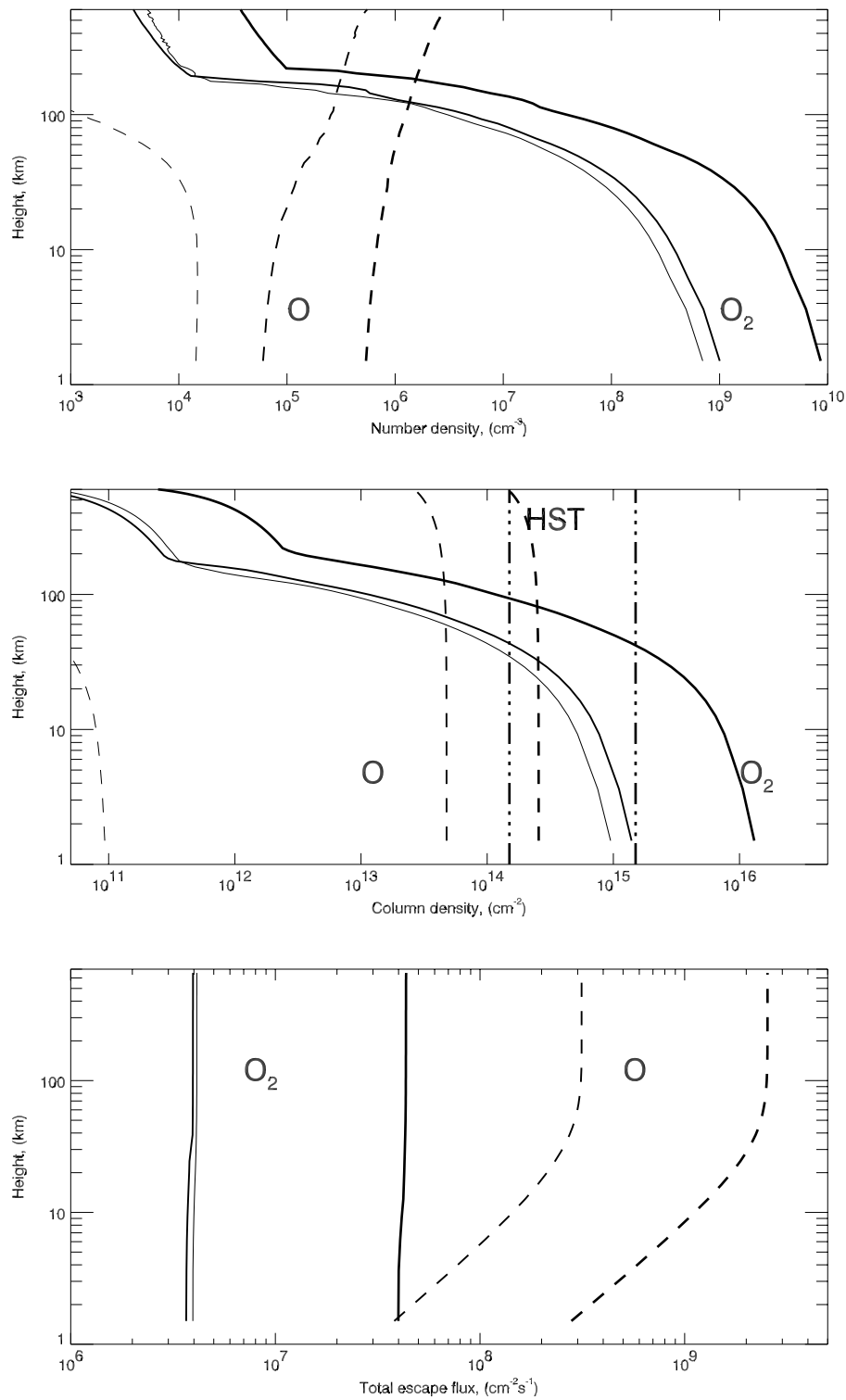


Figure 1, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa

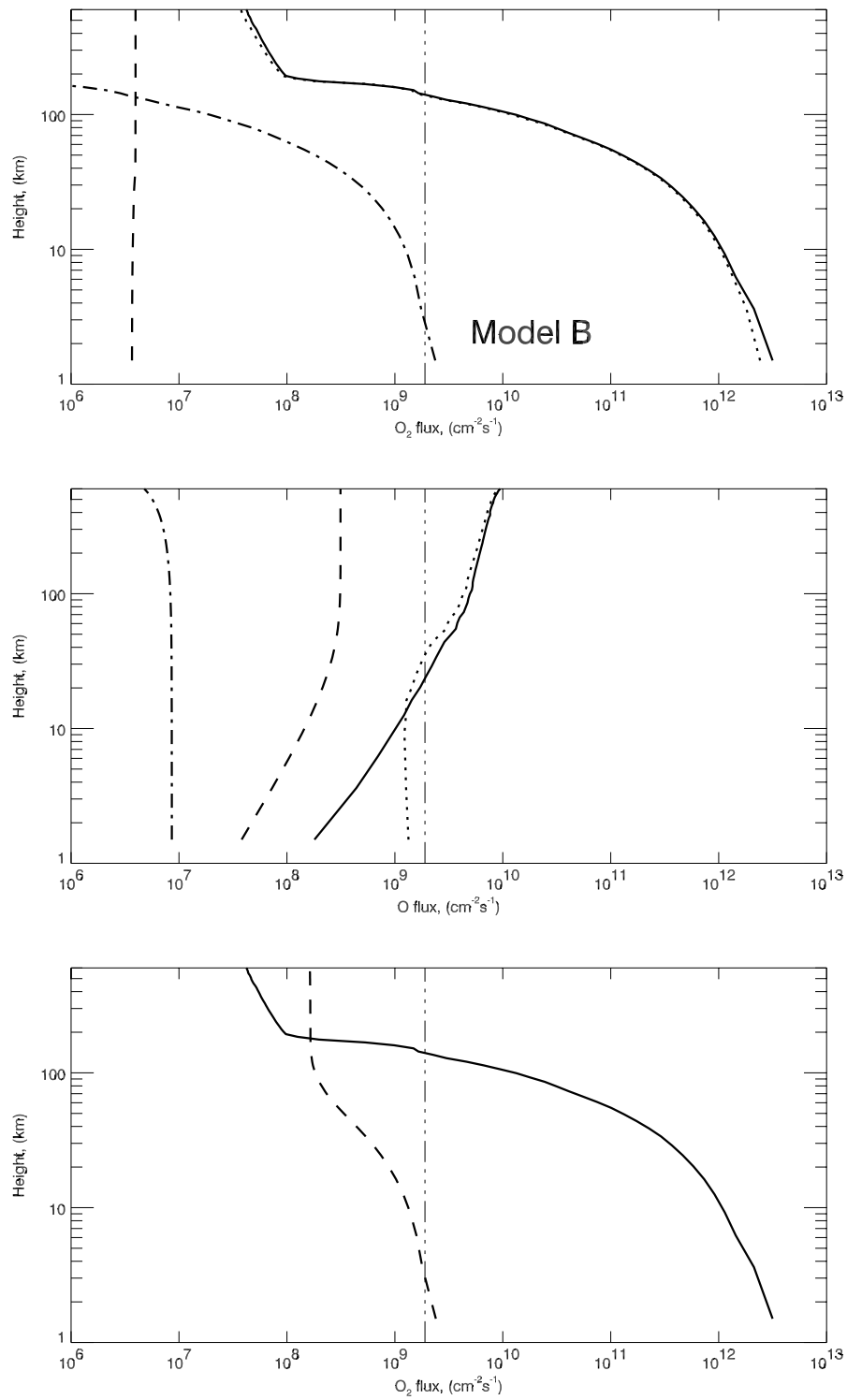


Figure 2, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa

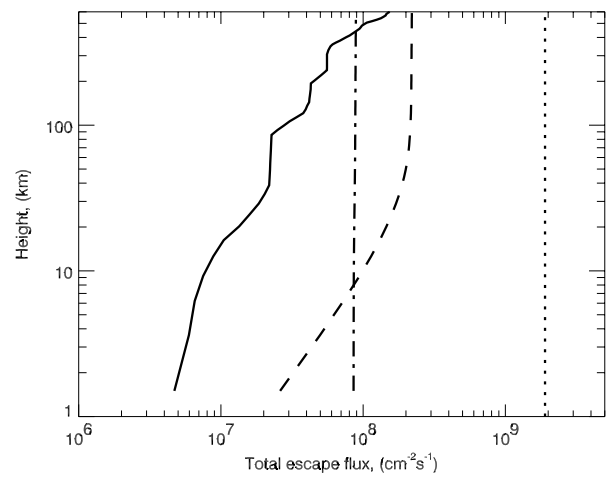
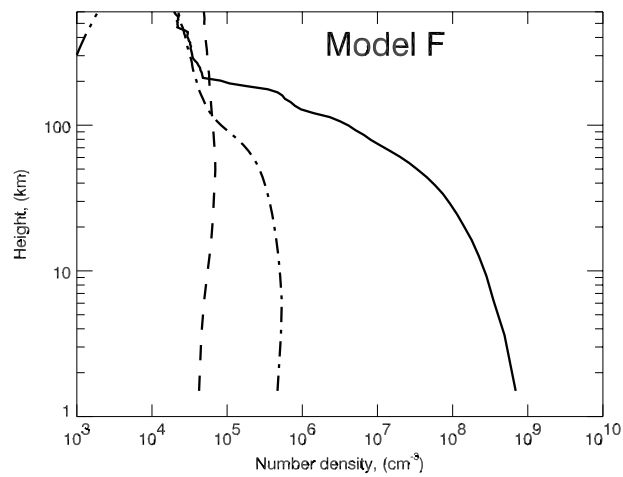
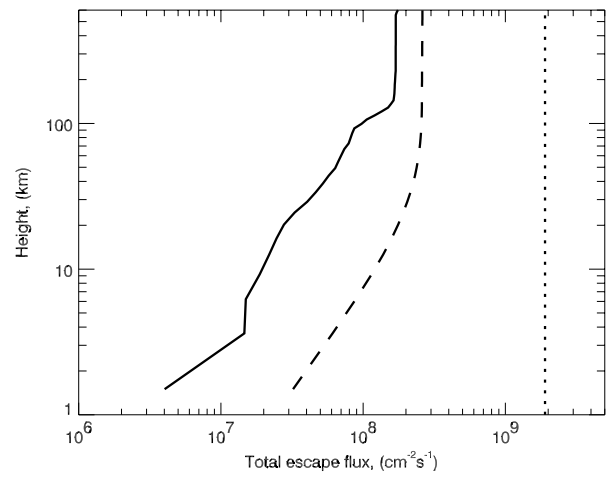
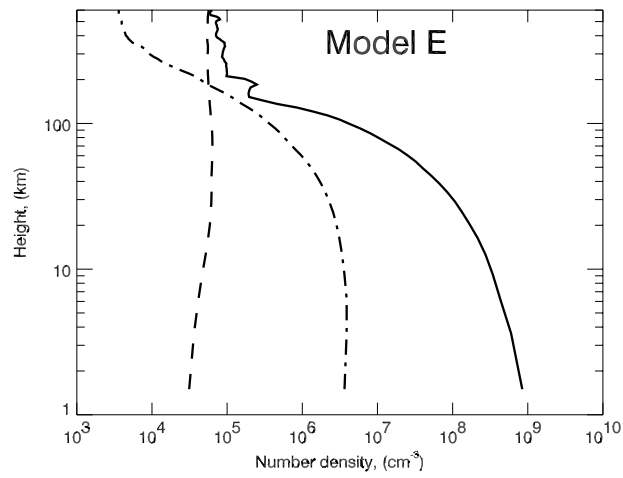
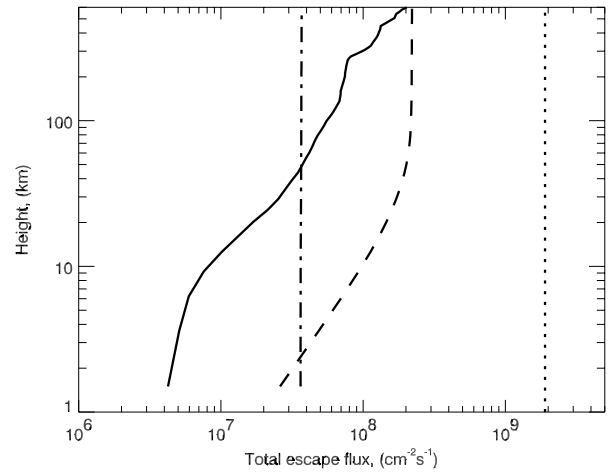
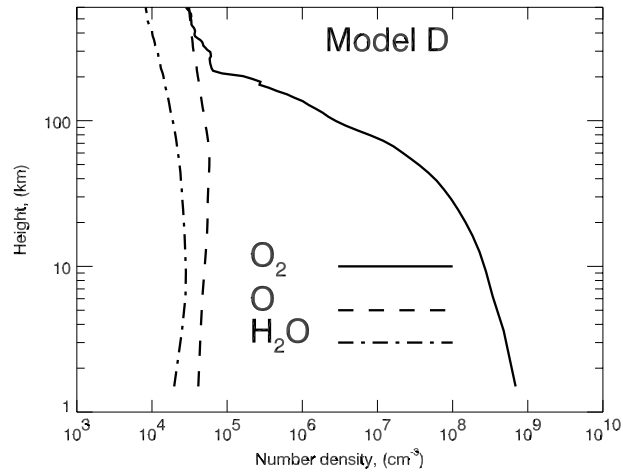


Figure 3, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa

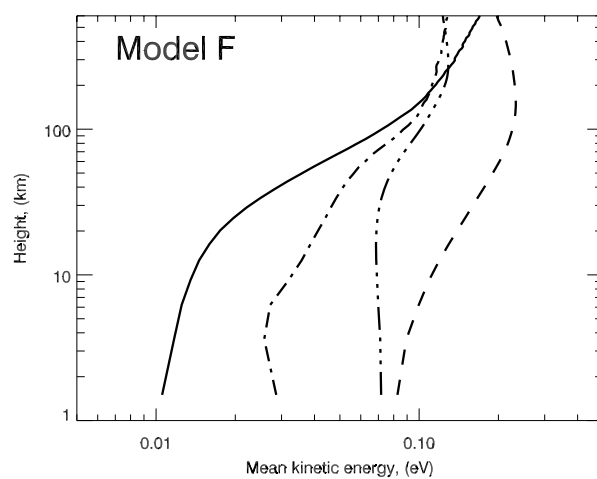
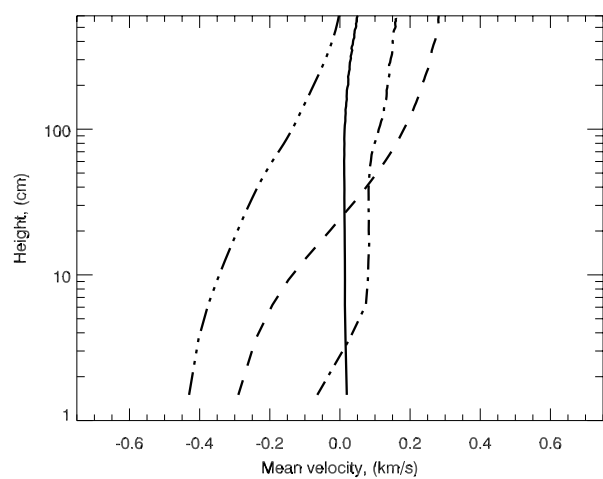
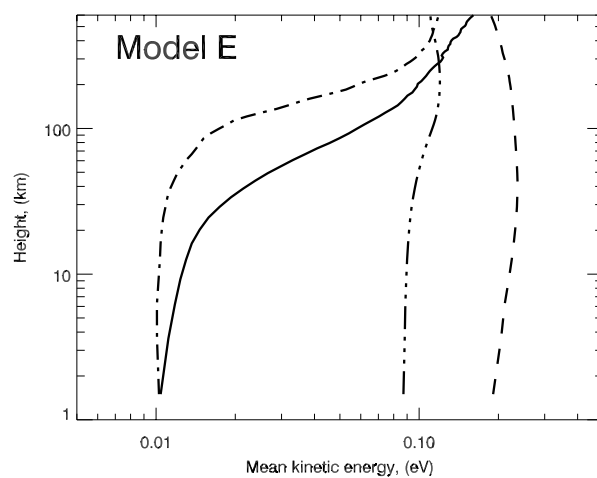
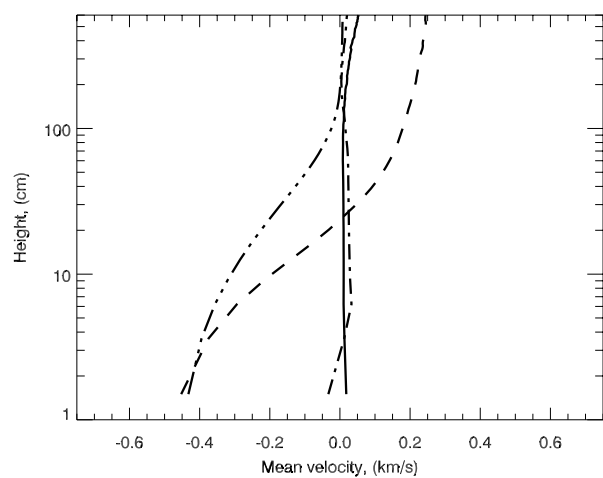
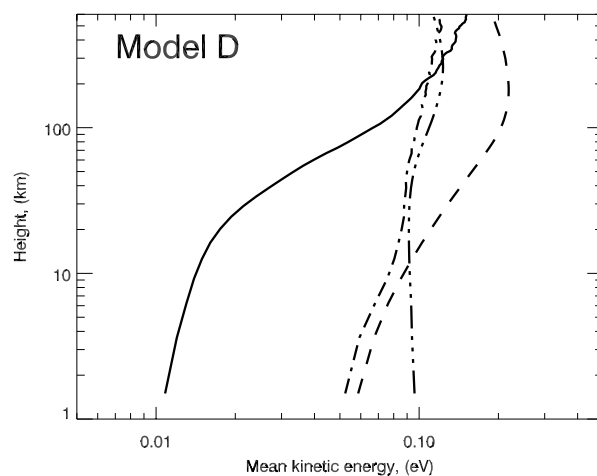
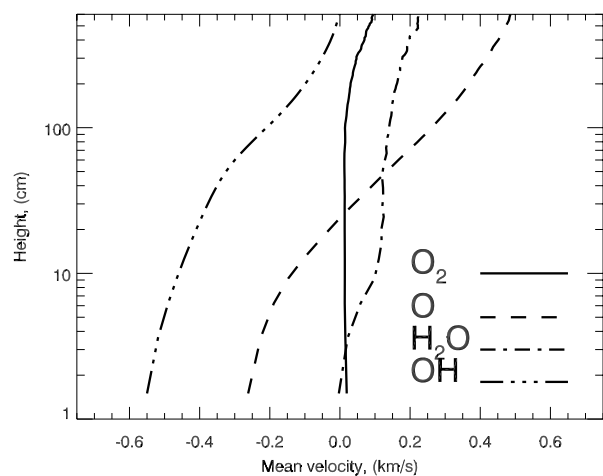


Figure 4, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa



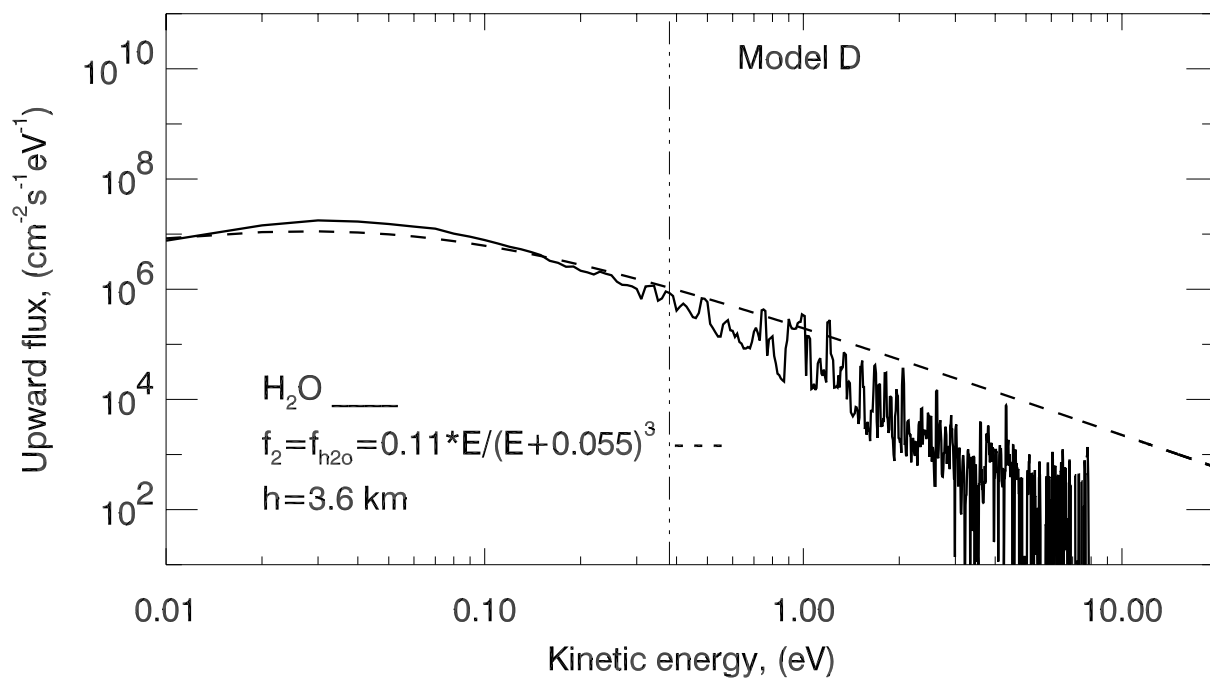
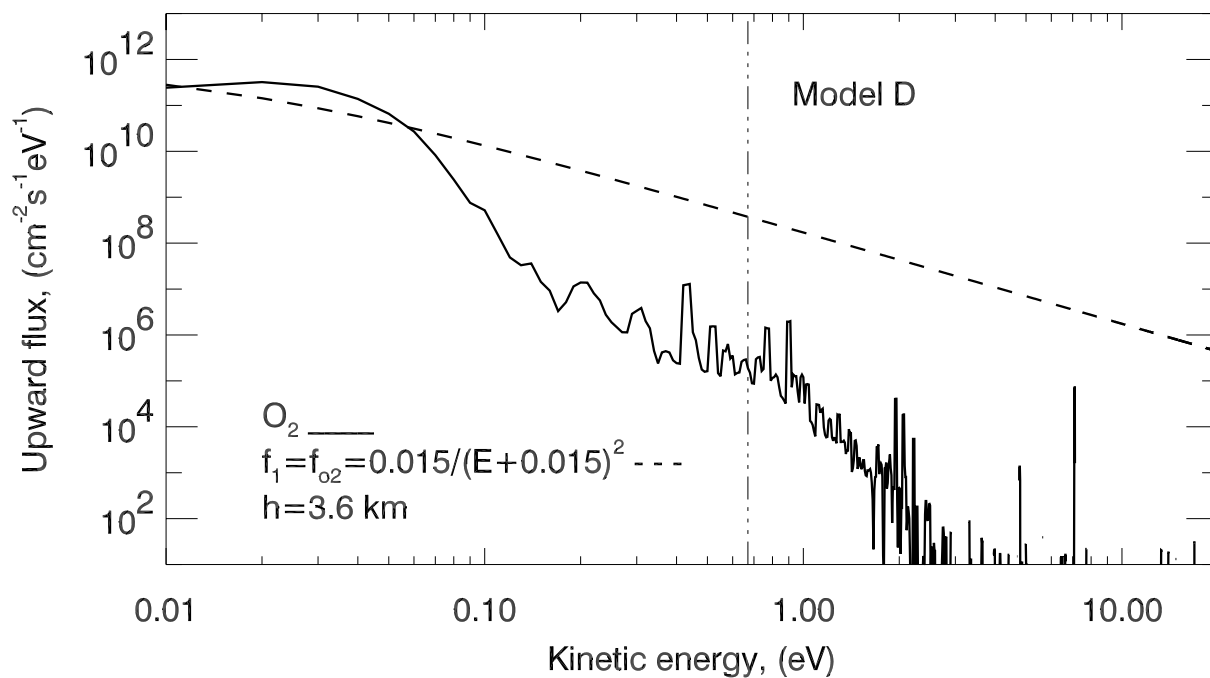


Figure 5a, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa

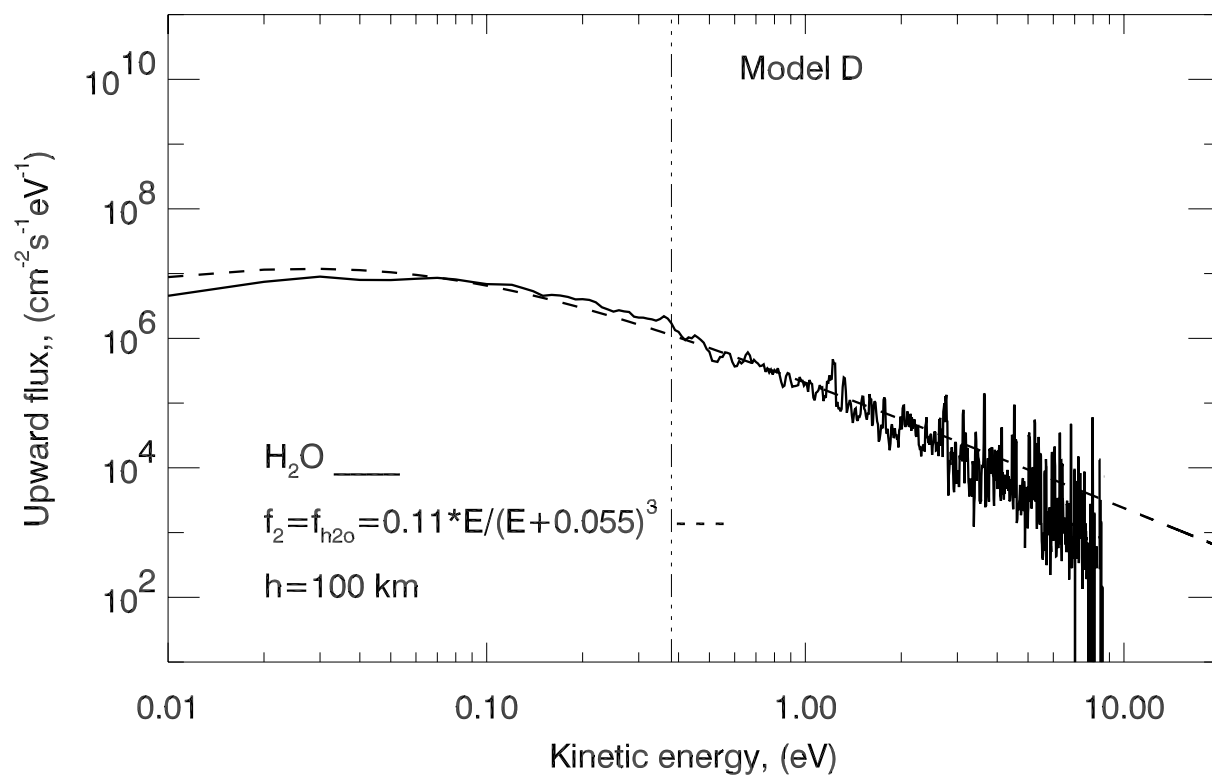
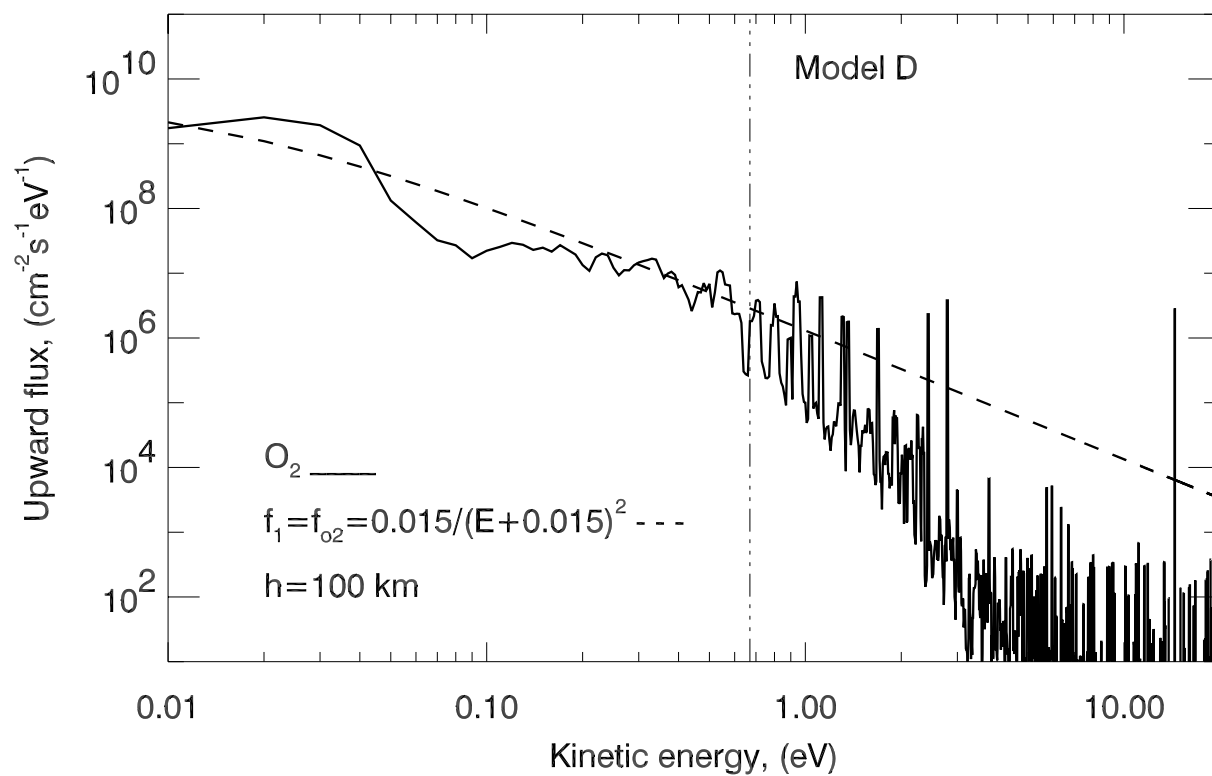


Figure 5b, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa

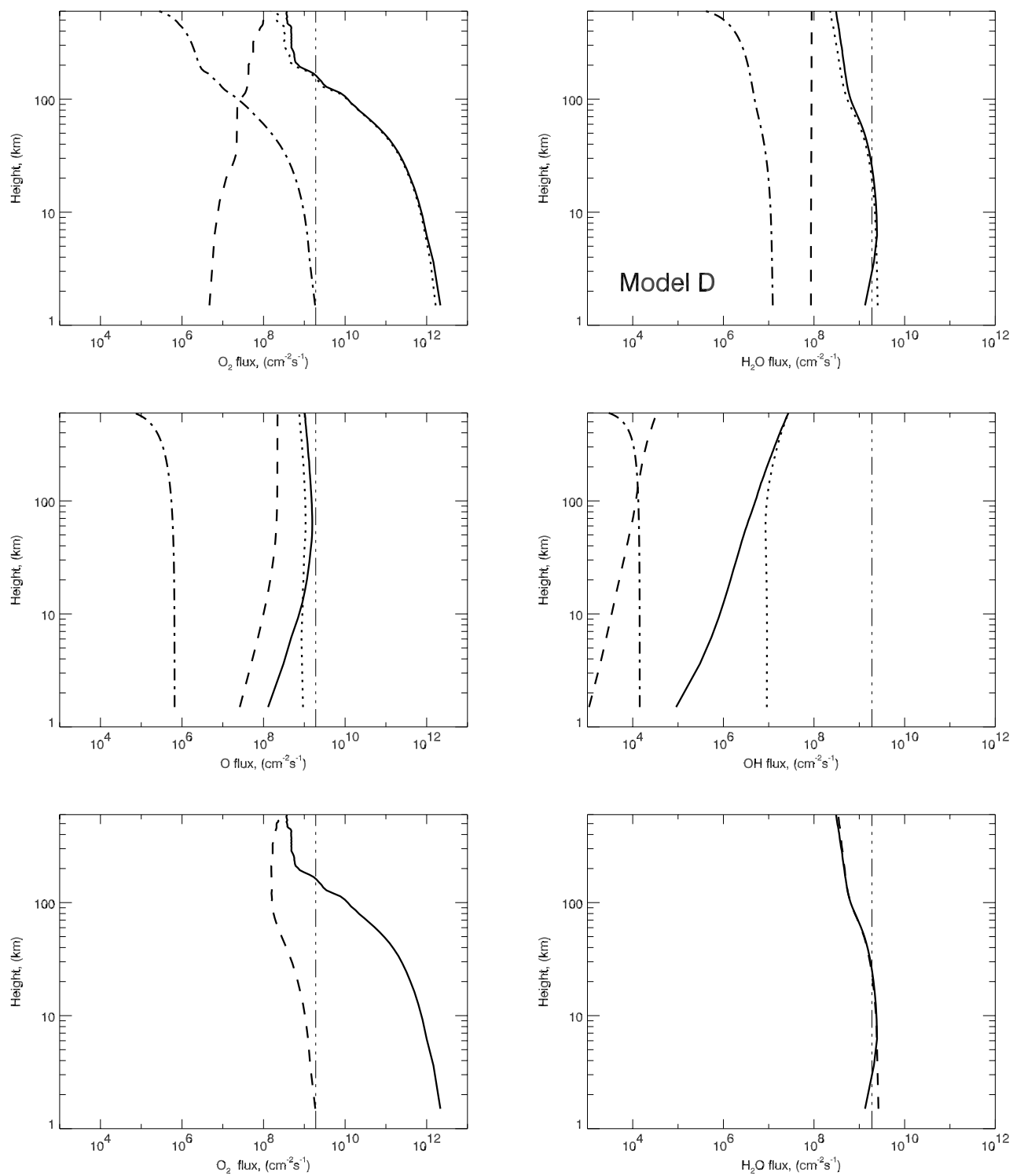


Figure 6, Shematovich et al., Surface-bounded atmosphere of Europa